DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 214 729 RC 013 274

AUTHOR Luther, Vicki Braglio; Luther, Joseph
TITLE Transactive Planning as a Principia Media in Rural Planning Education.
PUB DATE Apr 81
NOTE 22p.; Paper presented at the American Planning Association National Conference (Boston, Massachusetts, April 1981).

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC01 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Agency Cooperation; Continuing Education; *Curriculum Design; Futures (of Society); Higher Education; *Interdisciplinary Approach; Models; *Outreach Programs; Planning; Postsecondary Education; *Professional Education; Rural Areas; *Rural Development; Theories
IDENTIFIERS Eastern Washington University; Partnership for Rural Improvement; Planners; Transactive Theory

ABSTRACT

The implications of rapid change in rural areas demand an effort on the part of planner educators to prepare professional planners for new, transactive roles with skills to build the capacity of communities to become self-reliant. As one of the partner institutions working collaboratively in rural development and planning with the Partnership for Rural Improvement, Eastern Washington University has developed an inter-disciplinary planning curriculum that translates theory of transactive planning into skill areas and techniques. This curriculum has the added dimension of unique outreach work in adult and continuing education for planning commissioners, staff, and community members. (Author)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

ED214729

TRANSACTIVE PLANNING AS A PRINCIPIA MEDIA IN RURAL PLANNING EDUCATION

by

Vicki Braglio Luther and Joseph Luther

A Paper to be Presented at the
American Planning Association
National Conference
April, 1981
Boston, Massachusetts

RC 013274

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

Joseph Luther

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

☑ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official NIE position or policy.

INTRODUCTION

The trouble with today is that tomorrow isn't what it used to be. This is particularly true for rural communities and rural planners. Change is moving so rapidly that it is difficult to imagine, much less deal with its consequences. Our rural regions are in the focus of three major waves of change.

These waves, described by Toffler The Third Wave (1980) are the agricultural revolution, the industrial revolution, and the technological revolution. The first wave, launched some 10,000 years ago is still moving in ebbs and flows throughout rural America. The second wave, flowing out of the 17th century is just now reaching many rural areas. Close behind is rising the third wave. It is moving through our urban centers out along the radius of the paradigm to the rural periphery. There is now evident the impending collision of the waves, breaking over the rural landscape.

A look at Eastern Washington State illustrates this phenomena. Rising out of the wheat fields and crowding the grain silo for the skyline are the stacks of coal-fired electrical generating plants. In their industrial shadow, school children are involved in experiential interactions with mini-computers. This scene is repeated in one rural area after another as new demands for resources are industrializing and technologizing agricultural communities.

If tomorrow isn't what it used to be, how can rural communities possibly expect to anticipate and deal with their future? These rural communities

face the severest change stresses and yet contain the least capacity with which to deal with change. (Swanson, et al. 1979; Bryce, 1979). Traditionally, the one form of help available to these communities was that of "technical assistance." This usually meant a professional planner visited the town for a couple of days, worked as a consultant on the immediate problem of the day, and then departed to deal with other crises in other places.

Technical assistance usually deals with short-term immediate problems. But the long term problems always remain. When the professional technical expert leaves town, he or she also leaves the town without the skills or capacity to deal with other problems or even the ability to anticipate future problems.

Technical assistance has met with resistance for another reason. The visiting consultant is always an outsider, never a member of the community. Aside from the obvious lack of vested interest in the community, the visiting expert also brought personal and professional values from another place and another time.

In this sense, time is an extremely critical dimension in rural America. Misperceptions of reality often occur because the outside expert is not operating on the same time cycle as the rural community. The seasonal round of rural communities is difficult to coordinate with the linear time constraints of industrial/technological urban centers which is the home base for the outside expert. (Thompson, 1978)

If we accept the premise that the changes occuring in rural communities and regions will result in some of the most profound and pervasive events to occur in this country in the next decade, what can we planning educators do to mitigate these problems? Karl Mannheim (1935) writing on democratic

social planning discovered that education is the "principla media" by which planning can be achieved in a true sense of community. Etzioni (1969) calls this social learning which provides for social guidance. John Friedmann (1973) calls this transactive planning - mutual dialogues leading to mutual learning which leads to community action. Planning is the means of linking knowledge and action.

Essential to this transactive approach is the concept of community. The researcher soon discovers that there are some thirty statutory definitions of rural, some 22 case law definitions and even two definitions of rural in Webster's. One conclusion might be that the word rural does not signify a geographical place, but rather a state of being (Friedmann, 1979) In speaking of rural communities, Martin Buber's (1955) description of community "...constitution of life in common..." seems appropriate.

Friedmann, in his classic work on transactive planning (1974) notes the obstacles to community. These include the perceptual crisis of values and crisis of knowing. If community can be established through a process of self-actualization, then social guidance through social learning can be accomplished. What is important in this approach is the basic application of the right of self-determination. The community must constantly be learning and developing capacity to deal with its own problems, both short and long-term.

Rural planning education can be involved in community self-actualization by virtue of its curriculum. Planning programs at universities can prepare their students for new roles as planners. These new roles are considered as dimensions of the traditional and comfortable role of expert. New skills must include the following (Luther and Braglio, 1978):

1. Facilitator: the planner helping groups function more effectively through the use of organizational and small group techniques.

2. Educator: the planner transfers knowledge and skills that enables a community to effectively participate in the process of anticipating and dealing with change.

3. Collaborator: the planner joins the community as a participant rather than a leader and share knowledge through knowledge rather than through diatribe.

4. Process-helper: the planner serves as a process observer and intervening to help the community be aware of way it can function more effectively.

5. Catalyst: the planner provides vision to a community in order to stimulate the citizens and officials to action. He or she helps a community realize its potential represented in the citizens and officials individual and collective interests, skills, knowledge and resources, identifies such knowledge and skills and suggests ways to apply them to the planning process.

6. Resource linker: the planner serves as an information broker, linking the community to resources and also serving as a translator of highly technical information for community use.

7. Alternative identifier: the planner formulates alternative proposals which are both technically feasible and viable in the context of community values. He or she constructively involves citizens and officials in refinement and redefinition of alternatives.

8. Advocate: in this sense the planner advocates an ecological ethic and the total concept of community.

Added dimension is provided through the use of "futuring" concepts and techniques. This particularly strengthens the catalyst and alternative identifier roles. It follows that the use of futuring techniques fits very nicely into the transactive approach and greatly enhances the mutual learning community process. Social learning, through futuring, transcends what Arthur C. Clarke (1977) called "the failure of nerve" and "the failure of imagination." Escaping the bounds of the "best of possible worlds" reality, communities are able to visualize alternative community realities previously

beyond their experience and education— their perception. By opening this new window to the world, the planner is able to facilitate originality in thought and courage in expression.

In a gestalt modality, a futuring group is moving towards Mannheim's (1935) holistic perception of community. In what Etzioni (1976) calls "heuristic futures," intellectual games and group activities seek insights into what might happen if an event were to occur or certain circumstances were to prevail. In this approach, the social learning community explores alternative futures that are probable, possible and preferable.

These techniques are classified into two major groups. The first is exploratory. These activities begin with the present and its history, and attempt to project future developments. The second group is that of normative forecasts. These start with some desired or postualted future or condition and work backward seeking paths of transition from the present to the postulated future (Martino, 1976).

This distinction is important for application to community development work. Exploratory forecasts are more concerned with probably and possible futures, while normative forecasts are more concerned with desirable or preferable futures. Appropriate techniques within these groups are those which utilize mutual learning to educate and to encourage innovative exploration (Fitch and Svengalis, 1979).

The significance of futurists for planning and community development lies in its forecasting and projecting techniques. While traditional planning relies extensively upon trend extrapolation of past history, futurists utilize techniques such as scenarios, relevance trees and futures wheels. More importantly, these futuring activities involve dialogue among

partners in a social learning process, whereas trend extrapolation is typically a unilateral technocratic expert activity.

These skills are combined with the traditional expert role of planners. Even the expert role is tempered by the need to provide expert technical assistance while still allowing members of the community to have the responsibility for decisions. The planner-expert in fact, serves as staff to the community.

THE UNIVERSITY CURRICULUM

The development of these multiple roles within the curriculum of a Department of Urban and Regional Planning requires the synthesis of several theories of planning as well as input from several other disciplines. Barclay Hudson (1979) in comparing current planning theories, derived a heuristic arconym SITAR which represented the Synoptic, Incremental, Transactive, Advocacy and Radical schools of planning theory. These nine multiple roles for rural planners obviously involve the entire SITAR array. While Hudson urges the ad hoc mixing of these theories in practice, he perceived them as being on parallel tracks from which one could choose as appropriate.

The development of multiple roles for rural planners involves the SITAR array not in parallel tracks, but rather in a sequential knowledge development. In this situation, the student is exposed to the concept of Transactive Theory first. Upon this foundation of philosophy and ethic, the student overlays the remaining major theories. The design logic sequence for the curriculum and application to process is shown in the chart on the following pages.

The importance of the transactive theory to rural planning education lies in its requirement for recognition of community, its use of mutual dialogue to foster both community and learning, and its ecological essence. Planning students first learn that community is not a place but a state of being. Within this reality, the transactive style of planning involves face-to-face client centered relations using small groups as a means of drawing more people into direct engagement with their community. As Maruyam (1973) wrote on human futuristics, "...goals are to be inductively built by the opinions of people rather than considered as a priori given."

UNDERGRADUATE CURRICULUM DESIGN LOGIC

COURSE NUMBER	100	320	350	351	360	365
COURSE NAME	FUTURES	COMMUNITY DEV.	PLANNING I	PLANNING II	ENV. PLANNING	URBAN DESIGN
THEORY FOCUS	Transactive	Transactive	Synoptic	Synoptic	Advocacy	Radical
THEORY LINK IN ORDER OF WEIGHT	Radical Advocacy Synoptic	Radical Advocacy Synoptic	Transactive Radical Advocacy	Incremental Transactive Radical	Synoptic Radical Transactive	Transact Advocacy Synoptic
LEARNING OBJECTIVES	Alternative Futures Anticipating Change Community Learning Futurist Roles Ecological Concepts Environmental Ethic Community Concept Planning Process	Systems Concepts Community Concept Transactive Pln. Interpersonal Communication Social Learning Process Facilitation Organizing/Linking Problem Solving	Urban History Env. Influence Theory & Philosophy Planning Process Planning Products Env. Management Systems Concepts Comm. Organizing	Planning Process Problem Solving Community Concept Plan Techniques Env. Concepts Implementation Community Services Citizen Participation	Systems Concepts Ecological Concepts Env. Ethic Natural Process Analytical Process Community Learning Information Sharing	Sensuality Client Ide Problem Id Imaging Spatial Bo Design Pro Strategies Implementa
PROFESSIONAL ROLE/SKILL EMPHASIS	Alternative Identifier Advocate Catalyst Educator Facilitator Collaborator Process Helper	Facilitator Collaborator Process Helper Linker Advocate Educator Catalyst Alternative Identifier	Collaborator Expert Linker Alternative Identifier Advocate Educator Process Helper	Expert Alternative Identifier Process Helper Catalyst Educator Collaborator Linker	Advocate Expert Linker Alternative Identifier Process Helper Educator Collaborator Catalyst	Catalyst Process Helper Alternat Identifi Collabora Advocate Expert

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

It is also interesting to note that this transactive role for planners seems appropriate to what Grabow and Heskin (1973) identify as the radical theory of planning. In the radical approach, the planner's role is that of a "...non-professional professional: no longer one with a property right entitled 'planning', but rather an educator and at the same time a student..." The radical theory role is one of facilitation, of self-actualization of the individual and of others with whome one lives– i.e., the community.

The curriculum design presents an ecological advocacy role to the students as well. The ethic of the "Space Ship Earth" is advanced in the futures courses as well as the environmental courses. Environmental psychology is presented in urban design component emphasizing a user-oriented, user-designed, and user-built environment. Students are educated to utilize the ecological system as the basic ethic and the systems approach as the basic framework for analysis.

INTERDISCIPLINARY APPLICATIONS

A major problem in the use of the SITAR array in rural planning education was that few, if any, examples exist of how these approaches could be practically applied in rural communities. This is particularly true of the heuristic or synergetic application of these approaches.

It was fortunate that this Planning Department, faced with a lack of a "handbook," entered into a working relationship with the community development specialists of the Partnership for Rural Improvement. In joining this educational consortium, seeking to improve the process of rural planning and development, the planning educators were introduced to a wider range of interdisciplinary skills and knowledge which had direct and immediate application to the transactive theory, radical theory and multiple roles for rural planners.

Primary among these was the application of the behavioral sciences to human psycho-social development as a central form of planning. Planning was perceived by the behavioral sciences as a form of social learning (Hampden-Turner 1970; Dunn, 1971; Schon, 1971). Perhaps this is best illustrated by Donald Michael's book on Learning to Plan and Planning to Learn (1973).

While applying classic works on planned change such as Lippitt, Watson and Westly (1958) and respecting the influences of landmark works on re-education and T-group theory, considerable innovative efforts resulted in the formulation of more precise roles for the rural planner. Havelock's work on the training of change agents also influenced application of the transactive and radical theory to planning curriculum design.

Concurrently, the Partnership for Rural Improvement staff had developed a basic rationale that rural planning and development would be improved as a consequence of collaborative effort, greater utilization of knowledge and combination of local and external resources, in contrast to independent and unilateral actions taken separately by each local community, external agency or organization. Assuming that external resources in the forms of knowledge, skills and problem-solving, planning or development processes are delivered through organizations and institutions, the Partnership for Rural Improvement was designed to initiate interventions in order to establish organizational and communication linkages, apply existing knowledge and skills, convene collaborative opportunities, assist in the formation of new organizations and train people for new professional roles (Lassey, 1979).

Based upon Havelock's (1969) research utilization model, with extensions by Rothman (1974), the PRI model was formed around a rural development system suggested by Moe and Tamblyn (1974). The rural development strategies

outlined by Ed Moe (1975) included these general types:

- Rational-empirical, which empahsizes the use of knowledge and information as the critical input to effective development effort.
- Normative-reeducative, which emphasizes the deliberate creation of new methods and rules, while helping people to learn the required changes in values, behavior and roles through direct experience.
- Cooperative-collaborative, emphasizing the design and inventing of new linking mechanisms and new organizational arrangements which make it possible for agencies or organizations with overlapping goals or functions to work together in goal achievement.
- Power-coercive, focusing on rearranging the distribution of power and benefits in the process of development, through confrontation, conflict, and formalized efforts to use judicial and legislative decisions as the means for redefining the rules under which society operates.

None of these strategies, alone, is adequate, as Moe points out. The PRI Model integrates and selectively applies each in individual and synergetic concert.

The basic structure of the PRI model is that of a linkage system. Following Havelock's (1969) concept of planning for innovation through dissemination and utilization of knowledge, the PRI model relates available knowledge to development potential in direct association with the social interaction focus on opinion leaders and power structures (Lassey, 1979).

The behavioral sciences and organizational theory techniques utilized by the Partnership for Rural Improvement became the means by which transactive, radical and advocacy theory could be placed into practice. Organizational development became a major component of the initial course in community development and the advanced course in social planning. This approach focuses on the means to achieve desired changes in organizational structure and behavior. The emphasis in planned organizational change, notes Friedmann and Hudson (1974), implies a preoccupation with innovation, the role of "change agents" and the web of interpersonal relationships of which organizations are constructed. Although the tradition of organization

development contradicted the working hypothesis of the rationalistic theory, it did begin to merge with the theories of the philosophical synthesis tradition of planning. Here, planning could not be meaningfully separated from implementing action, and the planner's role could then be defined as that of change agent (Jones 1969; Schein, 1969). The concepts of organizational development have now been incorporated with the main body of the planning curriculum, while the basic intervention and group process skills of organizational development are taught as basic planning techniques. (Beneviste, 1977) (Michael, 1973).

As a consequence, rural planning education at Eastern Washington University utilizes Transactive Theory as the "principia media" -- the basic philosophical medium through which all traditional and multiple planning skills are applied. To lesser degrees and in various settings, radical, advocacy, incremental and synoptic theories are integrated sequentially to produce a version of Hudson's SITAR approach.

The committment of the Partnership for Rural Improvement to building the capacity of rural citizens to deal with change has been evidenced in the continuing development of educational materials and experiences that have resulted from the five years of field work by the staff and resources of the Partnership.

These materials and experience have been targeted at the adult learner and, because of the interdisciplinary approach of the Partnership for Rural Improvement, draw upon similar efforts in the fields of planning education, social work, anthropology, organization and community development as well as a theoretical grounding in the applied behavioral sciences. PRI's educational efforts generally fall into three categories: process consultation, design assistance and skill-building.

The term process consultation (Schein, 1969) is used in this framework to include on-going work with a community problem-solving group. This group would most likely be a board of elected or appointed officials involved in a program-planning effort. PRI staff, while acting as process helpers, would diagnose the group needs, offer structured meeting agendas, theory input and practical applications. An example of such an intervention would be PRI's project with a rural school board involved in formulating a policy statement of the school districts philosophy of education. Ordinarily this would have been considered an extremely difficult and controversial task but the board's involvement was facilitated by PRI staff and the task accomplished within four two-hour meetings. The underlying strategy in any PRI intervention is to shift as much responsibility to the group as possible: in this case, board members narrowed the task to five topic areas, wrote drafts individually for a topic area and then used consensus to revise. Because the intervention was conducted in an educational and transactive mode, board members learned a process as they completed the task and have been able to adapt and apply the process to other tasks as a group. PRI design assistance to rural communities has focused on the area of citizen participation. Planning commissioners have used a basic three meeting series (a PRI design) in the comprehensive planning process. These meeting designs are used for setting goals, developing objectives and working with maps to make land use decisions. Each meeting involves a structured small group session led by a planning commissioner or community leader in which citizens generate data in response to focus questions. During the course of the meeting, results of the small group work are posted and reviewed by everyone. The emphasis here is on the flow of information in two-directions -- both from staff and planning commissioner to the community and vice versa. The meeting then becomes a work session, a <u>transaction</u> in which citizens generate information that can be used by staff and planning commiss-

ioner to build the community goals for the comprehensive plan. Because PRI staff works with planning commissioners and staff, the concepts of small group processes, information flow, climate, staging and timing are learned and practiced by the officials and staff as they conduct and evaluate the public meeting. The PRI experience would indicate that this type of design assistance is significant in building the capacity of elected and appointed officials for dealing with citizen involvement in useful and productive ways.

Lastly, educational efforts inclue skill-building workshops. As with all PRI efforts, workshops are highly interactive and follow a basic human relations training approach. (Berger, 1973, Ivery, A.E. and Rollin, S. A. 1974). Workshops on the role of a process consultant have included small group work on case studies and use of problem-solving techniques applied to real life issues faced by planning commissioners. Part of the transactive approach demands that materials be adapted to fit the specific needs of each group and so "packaged" materials are used only so far as might be appropriate for the group. This client-centered approach (Pankowski, M.L. 1973) results in high participation and healthy motivation as planning commissioners are involved in the pre-planning of their skill-building workshop.

The needs of the adult learner reflect a wealth of experience and a high priority for practical, useful information. Adult learners are self-learners if the materials and experience are appropriate. It may be that, in fact, the greater the degree of transaction, the greater the amount of learning that occurs. PRI staff has made considerable efforts to translate Knowledge into Action in an attempt to use a transactive approach to build the capacity and self-reliance of rural community.

SUMMARY

The implications of rapid change in rural areas demand an effort on the part of planner educators to prepare professional planners for new, transactive roles with skills to build the capacity of communities to become self-reliant. As one of the partner institutions working collaboratively in rural development and planning (the Partnership for Rural Improvement) Eastern Washington University has developed an inter-disciplinary planning curriculum that translates theory of transactive planning into skill areas and techniques. This curriculum has the added dimension of unique outreach work in adult and continuing education for planning commissioners, staff and community members.

Vicki Braglio Luther is a Program Associate for the Partnership for Rural Improvement, based at Spokane Falls Community College. She coordinates PRI activities in six rural counties and is a student in Gonzaga University's doctoral program in Educational Leadership. She also holds an adjunct position with the Department of Urban and Regional Planning at Eastern Washington University.

Dr. Joseph Luther is an Associate Professor of Urban and Regional Planning at Eastern Washington University, specializing in rural-environmental planning. He was a PRI Program Coordinator at that institution. He is currently developing new coursework in the application of futuring techniques to transactive planning.

REFERENCES

Beneviste, Guy (1977)
Interaction Process Analysis. Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co.

Berger, M. L. and Berger, P. J. (Eds.)(1973)
Group Training Techniques: Cases, Applications and Research. New York: John Wiley.

Biddle, William W. and L. J. (1953)
The Community Development Process. New York: Holt Rinehart and Winston.

Bradford, L., Gibb, J., Benne, K. (1964)
T-Group Theory and Laboratory Method. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc.

Bryce, H. J. (1979)
Planning Smaller Cities. Lexington: Heath.

Buber, M. (1955)
Between Man and Man. New York: Beacon Press.

Clarke, A. (1977)
Profiles of the Future. New York: Harper and Row.

Dunn, E. (1971)
Economic and Social Development. Crowell.

Etzioni, A. (1969)
"Toward a Theory of Societal Guidance," in Sarajane Heidt and Amitai Etzioni (eds) Societal Guidance: A New Approach to Social Problems. New York: Crowell.

Etzioni, A. (1976)
"Rules for Using Forecasts and Forecasters," World Future Society Bulletin. May-June.

Fitch, R. and Svengalis, C. (1979)
Futures Unlimited: Teaching About Worlds to Come. Washington, D. C.: National Council for the Social Studies.

Friedmann, J. (1973)
Retracking America: A Theory of Transactive Planning. New York: Doubleday.

Friedmann, J. and Hudson, B. (1974)
"Knowledge and Action: A Guide to Planning Theory," Journal of the American Institute of Planners. January.

Glass, James T. (1979)
"Citizen Participation in Planning: The Relationship Between Objectives and Techniques," American Planning Association Journal. April, p. 180-189.

Goodenough, Ward Hunt (1963)
Cooperation in Change: An Anthropological Approach to Community Development. New York: The Russell Sage Foundation.

Grabow, S. and Heskin, A. (1973)
"Foundations for a Radical Concept of Planning," Journal of the American Institute of Planners. March.

Havelock, R. et al. (1969)
Planning for Innovation through Dissemination and Utilization of Knowledge. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan.

Hampden-Turner, Charles (1971)
Radical Man: The Process of Psycho-Social Development. Garden City, N.Y.: Anchor Books

Hudson, B. (1979)
"Comparison of Current Planning Theories: Counterparts and Contradictions," American Planning Association Journal. October.

Ivery, A. E. and Rollin, S. A. (1974)
"The Human Relations Performance Curriculum: A Committment to Intentionality," British Journal of Educational Techrology. 5(2), 21-29.

Jones, Garth N. (1969)
Planned Organizational Change: A Study in Change Dynamics. London: Routledge.

Lassey, W. (1979)
Partnership for Rural Improvement: An Emerging Rural Planning and Development Model. Pullman: Washington State University.

Lippitt, R., Watson, J., Westley, B. (1958)
The Dynamics of Planned Change. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co.

Luther, Joseph and Braglio, Vicki (1978)
"The Partnership for Rural Improvement: Linking Knowledge and Action," paper presented to American Planning Association National Conference. New Orleans. Published through ERIC.

Martino, J. (1976)
"Survey of Forecasting Methods," in World Future Society Bulletin. November-December.

Maruyam, M. (1973)
"Human Futuristics and Urban Planning," in Journal of the American Institute of Planners. September.

Mannheim, K. (1935)
Mensch Und Gesellschaft Im Zeitalter Des Umbaws. Leiden: A. W. Sijthoff's Vitgerersmaatschappij n.v. English version: (1949) Man and Society in an Age of Reconstruction. London: Harcourt, Brace.

Michael, Donald N. (1973)
Learning to Plan and Planning to Learn: The Social Psychology of Changing Toward Future-Responsive Societal Learning. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Moe, E. and Tamblyn, L. (1974)
"Rural Schools as a Mechanism for Rural Development." Published through ERIC.

Moe, E. (1975)
"Strategies in Rural Development." Working Paper.

Pankowski, M. L., et al. (1973)
"The Relationship Between Group Process and Group Problem-Solving." Adult Education. 24, 20-42.

Rothman, Jack (1974)
Planning and Organizing for Social Change. New York: Columbia University Press.

Schein, Edgar (1969)
Process Consultation: Its Role in Organization Development. Addison-Wesley.

Sheridan, K., et al. (1973)
"A Training Program for Small Group Leaders: I. Overview." Journal of Community Psychology. 1,3-7.

Swanson, B. E., et al. (1979)
Small Towns and Small Towners. Beverly Hills: Sage.

Thompson, W. I. (1978)
Darkness and Scattered Light: Speculations on the Future.
New York: Anchor Press/Doubleday.

Toffler, A. (1980)
The Third Wave. New York: Morrow.

Tough, Allen (1980)
The Adult's Learning Projects. Learning Concepts: Austin, Texas.

Verduin, John R., Miller, Harry G., Greer, Charles (1980)
Adults Teaching Adults. Learning Concepts: Austin, Texas.